



The Correlation between Level of School Happiness and Teacher Autonomy in Jordan

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The present study aimed to investigate the level and correlation of school happiness and teacher autonomy among a sample of Jordanian teachers. The study sample consisted of 1,030 teachers within the Jerash and Mafrq Directorate of Education, with data collected using the School Happiness Scale(SHS) and Teacher Autonomous Behavior Scale(TABS). Results study showed a positive and statistically significant correlation between school happiness and teacher autonomy. Results also showed there were statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness by gender, in favor of female teachers; statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness by school level, in favor of secondary school teachers; and statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness by teacher tenure, in favor of teachers with one to five years of experience. Finally, results also showed statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to gender, in favor of female teachers; no statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy by school level; and statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy by teacher tenure, in favor of teachers with one to five and six to ten years of experience.

Keywords: happiness, school happiness, jordanian teacher, teacher autonomy, teaching

INTRODUCTION

The state of happiness is generally qualified as two separate facets, global (overall/general) and episodic (experienced/periodic). The overall facet indicates a generally good level of contentment and satisfaction with life, whereas the periodic trait is dictated by emotional responses to specific experiences (Veenhoven, 2009).

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Numerous studies (e.g., Crede et al., 2007; Fisher, 2010; Judge et al., 2005) have indicated a positive relationship between happiness at work, job performance and satisfaction, whereas burnout and frequent job change indicate the opposite (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998; Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000).

Researchers' definitions of happiness are varied, including emotions of joy, gladness, and hope, as well as physical and spiritual well-being (Köknel, 1992), life-satisfaction (Huebner, 1991), life-satisfaction and the significance of life (Seligman, Parks & Steen, 2004), and positive feelings about life (Lyubomirsky, Sheldo & Schkade, 2005).

Veenhoven (2008) considers happiness to be a result of evaluating life overall, while Seligman (2011) gives a multi-dimensional definition encompassing the meaning of life, positive responses, obligation and accountability, successful relationships, and achievement; studies (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005; Pan & Zhou, 2013; Schnittker, 2008), revealed evidence of the necessity of success for individuals' happiness.

Despite the interest and number of research studies into school happiness and teacher autonomy in Western countries, this issue has failed to arouse much interest in the Arab world in general and Jordan in particular.

LITERATURE REVIEW

School happiness

School happiness is defined as the emotional well-being that results from concordance of expectations and the needs of both staff and students, contingent upon pertinent environmental aspects (Engels, Aelterman, Petegem, & Schepens, 2004). The importance of a happy school environment is clearly evident for the achievement of effective learning, and encouraging students' abilities (Talebzadeh & Samkan, 2011).

According to Bird and Markle (2012), a happy school environment is a contributory factor not only to academic success, but continues through life in areas such as good communication skills, continuing success, and self-fulfilment, while Aydin (2016) focuses attention on the demand in child education to emphasize caring and respect for life, nature, and all living things.

Talebzadeh and Samkan (2011) point out the individual, physical, socio-emotional, and instructional factors associated with school happiness; Yildirim (2014) expands this premise, asserting that the following factors contribute to teachers' well-being in the school environment: staff cooperation, assessment and feedback that is fair and helpful, a positive school environment with student-oriented teaching practices, and personal development.

Aelterman, Engels, Van Petegem and Verhaeghe (2007) associate teacher well-being with support from the school principal and colleagues, workload, self-efficacy, parent-teacher relations, and positive attitudes towards innovations. In order to more fully understand the complexity of interactions affecting teacher happiness we need to

examine the wider contexts in which they function, both professionally and socially, and the external boundaries and conciliations.

Some studies assert the importance of providing equipment for sports and physical activities, to encourage student participation and stimulate creativity. Aksu, Demirel and Bektas (2011) considered areas dedicated to artistic and social activities to be essential, and Gür and Kobak-Demir (2016) suggested introducing ‘fun-learning’ by establishing game-based mathematics laboratories; Kubanc (2014) suggested that student happiness would be improved by the availability of multidisciplinary physical learning equipment.

According to the researchers (Boehm & Lyubomirsky, 2008; Lyubomirsky, King & Diener, 2005), people who are happy generally have higher salaries, achieve higher task performance ratings, and are more helpful to their colleagues. Baker (2005) states that in the educational setting, happy teachers nurture happy students who achieve scholastically. Duckworth, Quinn, and Seligman (2009) found teacher positivity and life-satisfaction to be predictors of pupils’ academic success, while Turner et al. (2002) showed that humor was more likely to be evident in well organized classes with high student participation. Jennings and Greenberg (2009), reviewing more than 180 studies, stressed that those teachers showing high socio-emotional competence levels developed good teacher-student relations and a supportive classroom atmosphere. Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) similarly commented on the importance of a happy environment to encourage and develop student learning. Bride and Markle (2012) emphasize the benefits of a happy school environment not solely in the academic context but in contributing to overall life skills and fulfilment. Conversely, Yucel and Vogt-Yuan (2016) found that if school was an unhappy experience, the effects of low grades, poor pupil-teacher relations, loneliness and anxiety not only result in low self-esteem, but may also contribute to depression and substance abuse. Therefore, the impact of a happy school environment extends beyond schooldays, instilling positive life-skills and optimism for the future. Aydin (2016) specifically mentions the need to teach children awareness, affection, and respect for nature and all forms of life. Since teachers are at the core of learning, the teacher’s approach and style are crucially influential in promoting learner happiness and well-being which can motivate learning. A relaxed classroom atmosphere and environment thus allows the teacher to fulfil her comprehensive role as explainer and instructor, planner, facilitator and mediator.

Teacher autonomy

The term ‘autonomy’ is derived from the Greek word ‘autonomia’ (Castle, 2006), which means being independent of control by others. The researchers explains that professional autonomy in the educational domain has a wide interpretation, from self-government at work to an intra-professional organization (Haworth, 1986; Gastle, 2006). Teacher autonomy is defined as both the freedom to act as a professional, and as having the discretionary freedom to organize one’s work (Benson, 2010; Runhaar, Konermann, & Sanders, 2013; Webb, 2002).

Vähäsantanen et al. (2008) focus on the difference between teacher autonomy and the agency concept, which encompasses not simply choices but how they reflect the

individual's motives, goals, and self-interest, while Yu-hong and Ting(2012) mention the difference between teacher autonomy and organizational autonomy.

Helgoy and Homme (2007) justify teacher autonomy as validating the individual teacher's status in the classroom and the societal context, and Webb et al. (2004) state its strong association with decisions regarding whether or not to remain in the teaching profession. Some researchers state its positive effect on teachers' professional development (Kleinhenz & Ingvarson, 2004; Lee, 2008).

Although the essential concept is self-determination, taking autonomous or self-determined action, teacher autonomy is a multi-faceted complex of philosophical, psychological, sociological, and historical-political aspects. Pfander (1967), explains self-determination from an ego-centric base, whereby self-determined acts are not exclusively the result of internal motivation; the motivation may also be external if the proposals are validated and approved by the individual, in which case since external pressures and influences are inevitable, then autonomy is simply a matter of degree (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Kennedy (2010) in the school context, however, sees the set curriculum as the most likely origin of external pressure and influence as teachers seek to implement varying degrees of curricular modification. Implementing the curriculum effectively depends on the degree to which the teacher regards his/her proprietary privileges, a source of concern to curriculum compilers needing teachers' endorsement.

Pearson and Moomaw (2006) see the scope of teacher autonomous behaviour as prime class work procedures concerned with classroom conduct and personal on-the-job discretion. Include in curricular autonomy the selection of activities and materials, plus instructional planning and sequencing (Benson, 2010; Mustafa & Cullingford, 2008; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). The researchers (Öztürk, 2012; Pugh & Zhao, 2003) noted teacher participation in decision making regarding working conditions and school environment. And researchers see teacher autonomy as control of professional development activities (Powell & McGowan, 1996; Webb,2002).

Study questions

The present study attempted to answer the following questions:

Q1: Is there any correlation between school happiness with teacher autonomy?

Q2: Are there any differences in school happiness based on gender, school level, and teacher tenure?

Q3: Are there any differences in teacher autonomy based on gender, school level, and teacher tenure?

METHOD

Study design

In the current study, the descriptive approach was used. To identify the statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness and teacher autonomy MONOVA

was used. Pearson correlation was used to investigate the relationship between school happiness and teacher autonomy.

Study sample

The study population consisted of all teachers within the Jerash and Mafrqa Directorate of Education during the school year 2019/2020. The study sample consisted of 1,030 teachers, chosen by available sampling method, of whom 558(54.2%) were male and 472 (45.8%) female; 443(43%) were teaching at primary school level, and 587(57%) at secondary level; 345(33.5%) teachers had 1-5 years of teaching experience, 348(33.8%) 6-10 years, and 337(32.7%) 10 years or more. The study sample age ranged from 25 to 50 years.

Study instruments

The School Happiness Scale and Teacher Autonomy Scale were used.

School Happiness Scale (SHS)

The SHS was developed by Sezer and Can (2019) and consists of 26 items; it measures five dimensions of school happiness according to the five-point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. The dimensions are physical activity equipment (4 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.73), learning environment(7 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.87), collaboration (8 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.82), activities (3 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.70), and school management (4 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.94). The overall Cronbach alpha for SHS was 0.93.

These authors calculated the reliability of the SHS using Cronbach alpha (0.79, 0.84, 0.79, 0.78 and 0.84) respectively for physical equipment, learning environment, collaboration, activities, and school management. The Cronbach alpha for SHS reliability was 0.90.

Teacher Autonomy Behavior Scale (TABS)

TABS was developed by Evers, Verboon and Klaijnsen (2017), and consists of 20 items, measured on a seven-point Likert scale from (1= almost never) to (7= almost always). It measures four dimensions of teacher autonomous behavior: primary work processes in the class(6 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.87), curriculum implementation (6 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.89), participation in decision making at school (4 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.82), and professional development (4 items, Cronbach alpha= 0.94).

In the present study the authors calculated the reliability of the TABS finding Cronbach alpha 0.79, 0.83, 0.82 and 0.89 respectively for primary work processes in the classroom, curriculum implementation, participation in decision making at school, and professional development.

Data collection and analysis

The study scales was translated from English into Arabic and the accuracy and integrity of the translation was verified; a pilot study was carried out and completed by 50

teachers to ensure the clarity of the items in the Arabic language, and the wording of some of the items was modified in the light of the teachers' comments. The researchers visited the schools included in the study sample, the scales were distributed to the teachers, and the data collected after two months. The researchers entered the data using SPSS, and the analysis and answers to the study questions, descriptive statistics, and correlation coefficients were achieved using MANOVA.

FINDINGS

Q1: Is there any correlation between school happiness with teacher autonomy?

To discover the correlation between school happiness and teacher autonomy among Jordanian teachers, Pearson correlation tables were used, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Pearson correlation matrix between school happiness and teacher autonomy

Variables	Primary work process in class	Curriculum implementation	Participation in decision making at school	Professional development	Teacher autonomy
Physical equipment	0.23*	0.29*	0.31*	0.33*	0.35*
Learning environment	0.49*	0.44*	0.50*	0.49*	0.58*
Collaboration	0.44*	0.48*	0.57*	0.47*	0.59*
Activities	0.30*	0.35*	0.45*	0.47*	0.47*
School management	0.24*	0.25*	0.38*	0.19*	0.32*
School happiness	0.48*	0.50*	0.61*	0.54*	0.64*

Table 1 shows a positive and statistically significant correlation between school happiness and teacher autonomy; the value of the correlation coefficient was ($r= 0.64$). The results also show a positive correlation between the dimensions of the school happiness scale and the dimensions of the teacher autonomy scale, with values of the correlation coefficient ranging from ($r= 0.19$) to ($r= 0.59$).

Q2: Are there any statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness attributed to teacher's gender, school level, and teacher tenure?

The means and standard deviations for levels of school happiness attributed to teacher gender, school level, and teacher tenure are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Mean(M), standard deviation (SD), and level of school happiness based on gender, school level and number of teacher tenure

Variable	Level	PE		LE		C		A		SM		SH	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Gender	Male	3.57	.96	3.89	.69	4.21	.57	3.89	.84	4.49	.62	4.03	.55
	Female	3.84	.67	4.17	.47	4.29	.38	3.98	.77	4.45	.51	4.18	.34
School level	Primary	3.67	.86	4.01	.65	4.17	.56	4.01	.81	4.38	.49	4.07	.49
	Secondary	3.71	.84	4.02	.58	4.30	.43	3.88	.81	4.54	.63	4.12	.45
Teacher tenure	1-5	3.79	.92	4.09	.66	4.34	.55	4.09	.77	4.70	.46	4.22	.49
	6-10	3.84	.82	4.09	.59	4.25	.43	3.91	.75	4.38	.53	4.13	.45
	More than 10	3.44	.75	3.87	.56	4.15	.48	3.80	.89	4.33	.65	3.95	.45

Note: PE- Physical Equipment, LE- Learning Environment, C- Collaboration, A- Activities, SM- School Management, SH- School Happiness

To discover whether the mean differences are statistically significant, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was applied, with the results shown in Table 3.

Table 3
MANOVA result of the level of school happiness based on gender, school level and years of teacher tenure

Source	Dependent variable	Sum of squares	DF	Square Means	F	Sig
Gender	Physical equipment	12.153	1	12.153	17.623	0.00
	Learning environment	14.840	1	14.840	41.424	0.00
	Collaboration	0.461	1	0.461	1.926	0.16
	Activities	0.640	1	0.640	0.984	0.32
	School management	2.332	1	2.332	7.643	0.00
	School happiness	2.689	1	2.689	12.673	0.00
School level	Physical equipment	0.631	1	0.631	0.915	0.33
	Learning environment	0.070	1	0.070	0.194	0.66
	Collaboration	4.046	1	4.046	16.906	0.00
	Activities	4.861	1	4.861	7.475	0.00
	School management	5.272	1	5.272	17.281	0.00
	School happiness	0.830	1	0.830	3.911	0.04
Teacher tenure	Physical equipment	25.501	2	12.751	18.490	0.00
	Learning environment	6.723	2	3.362	9.384	0.00
	Collaboration	5.563	2	2.782	11.624	0.00
	Activities	14.387	2	7.193	11.061	0.00
	School management	27.226	2	13.613	44.623	0.00
	School happiness	9.774	2	4.887	23.033	0.00
Error	Physical equipment	706.853	1025	0.690		
	Learning environment	367.194	1025	0.358		
	Collaboration	245.286	1025	0.239		
	Activities	666.617	1025	0.650		
	School management	312.696	1025	0.305		
	School happiness	217.470	1025	0.212		
Corrected total	Physical equipment	752.023	1029			
	Learning environment	393.046	1029			
	Collaboration	256.350	1029			
	Activities	687.450	1029			
	School management	346.867	1029			
	School happiness	233.249	1029			

Table 3 shows statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness attributed to gender (Wilks Lambda= 0.932, F= 14.894, Sig=0.00), in favor of female teachers, in the level of school happiness attributed to school level (Wilks Lambda= 0.932, F= 14.904, Sig=0.00), in favor of secondary school teachers, and in the level of school happiness attributed to the teacher tenure (Wilks Lambda= 0.879, F= 13.547, Sig=0.00). Significant differences by number of years of teaching were identified using the Scheffe post hoc test; the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Scheffe test results of school happiness level according to the teacher tenure

Variable	Level	Mean	1-5	6-10	More than 10
Teacher tenure	1-5	4.22		0.9	0.27
	6-10	4.13	-0.9		0.18
	More than 10	3.95	-0.27	0.9	

Table 4 shows statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness attributed to teacher tenure in favor of teachers who have one to five years teaching experience, compared to teachers who have six to ten years and more than ten years' teaching experience. The table also shows statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness in favor of teachers with six to ten years' teaching experience compared to teachers who have more than ten years' experience.

Q3: Are there any statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to teacher gender, school level, an teacher tenure?

To find the statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to teacher's gender, school level, and teacher tenure, means and standard deviations were collated as shown in Table 5. Multivariate analysis of variance(MANOVA) was then applied, with the results as shown in Table 6.

Table 5
Means(M), standard deviation(SD), and level of teacher autonomy based on gender, school level and teacher tenure

Variable	Level	PWP	CI	PDM	PD	TA					
Gender	Male	5.70	.77	5.74	.91	5.79	.94	5.60	.98	5.71	.75
	Female	5.93	.68	6.10	.64	5.91	.73	5.87	.86	5.96	.53
School level	Primary	5.79	.71	5.93	.76	5.87	.85	5.85	.90	5.86	.64
	Secondary	5.82	.76	5.89	.86	5.83	.86	5.62	.96	5.80	.70
Teacher tenure	1-5	5.83	.69	6.06	.69	6.00	.70	5.67	.93	5.90	.58
	6-10	5.85	.69	5.97	.80	5.87	.85	5.84	.93	5.89	.70
	More than 10	5.74	.83	5.68	.90	5.65	.96	5.65	.94	5.69	.73

Note: PWP- Primary work process in the class, CI- Curriculum implementation, PDM- Participation in decision making at school, PD-Professional development, SM-School Management, TA-Teacher autonomy

Table 6
MANOVA results of the level of teacher autonomy levels based on gender, school level and teacher tenure

Source	Dependent variable	Sum of squares	DF	Mean of squares	F	Sig
Gender	Primary work process in the class	11.685	1	11.685	21.538	0.00
	Curriculum implementation	24.676	1	24.676	39.252	0.00
	Participation in decision making at school	1.083	1	1.083	1.500	0.22
	Professional development	18.568	1	18.568	21.762	0.00
	Teacher autonomy	12.857	1	12.857	28.838	0.00
School level	Primary work process in the class	0.317	1	0.317	0.585	0.44
	Curriculum implementation	0.402	1	0.402	0.639	0.42
	Participation in decision making at school	0.474	1	0.474	0.656	0.41
	Professional development	12.497	1	12.497	14.647	0.00
	Teacher autonomy	0.750	2	0.750	1.682	0.19
Teacher tenure	Primary work process in the class	0.992	2	0.496	0.914	0.40
	Curriculum implementation	17.690	2	8.845	14.070	0.00
	Participation in decision making at school	18.501	2	9.251	12.813	0.00
	Professional development	5.726	2	2.863	3.356	0.03
	Teacher autonomy	5.918	2	2.959	6.637	0.00
Error	Primary work process in the class	556.100	1025	0.543		
	Curriculum implementation	644.378	1025	0.629		
	Participation in decision making at school	740.038	1025	0.722		
	Professional development	874.555	1025	0.853		
	Teacher autonomy	456.988	1025	0.446		
Corrected total	Primary work process in the class	570.310	1029			
	Curriculum implementation	696.654	1029			
	Participation in decision making at school	762.458	1029			
	Professional development	913.319	1029			
	Teacher autonomy	480.397	1029			

Table 6 shows statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to the gender variable (Wilks Lambda= 0.938, F= 16.796, Sig=0.00), in favor of female teachers. There were no statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to either the school level (Wilks Lambda=0.974, F=6.792, Sig=0.00). Table 6 also shows statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to the teacher tenure (Wilks Lambda=0.914, F=11.773, Sig=0.00). To identify significant differences between the teacher tenure, the Scheffe post hoc test was used, with results as shown in Table 7.

Table 7
Scheffe test results of teacher autonomy level according to teacher tenure

Variable	Level	Mean	1-5 years	6-10 years	More than 11 years
Teacher tenure	1-5	5.90			0.21
	6-10	5.89			0.20
	More than 10	5.69	-0.21	0.20	

Table 7 shows significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to teacher tenure in favor of teachers with one to five and six to ten years' experience, compared to teachers with eleven or more years of teaching experience.

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to identify if there any significant differences in these levels of school happiness and teacher autonomy by gender, school level, and teacher tenure among a sample of 1,030 Jordanian teachers, and whether there are significant differences in these levels by gender, school level, and years of teacher tenure. It also aimed to investigate the relationship between school happiness and teacher autonomy.

The results of the current study showed there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between the level of school happiness and the level of teacher autonomy among Jordanian teachers. The researchers attribute this result to the fact that happiness has a strong positive effect on an individual's behavior, including positive thinking; individuals think positively when they are happy and more confident in themselves, and they are ready to face problems and make appropriate decisions, which all contribute to strengthening teachers' autonomy. This something that teachers should be able to recognize and is one of the main features in their personality, controlling most of their behavior in a large number of different life situations because of its effective role in enabling them to face the difficulties and challenges of life.

Boehm and Lyubomirsky (2008) found employee happiness levels to be directly related to the amount of social support given by colleagues and management and higher levels result from helpful and supportive interactions with others. The results of studies (Aelterman et al., 2007; Yildirim, 2014) found that teachers' well-being in school was increased by good parent-teacher relations, staff cooperation, supportive school principal and colleagues, as well as fair and helpful assessment and feedback.

Buragohain and Hazarika (2015) found that the high levels of school happiness for teachers increases their level of job satisfaction. Tablebzadeh and Samkan (2011) found that students' and teachers' school happiness was increased by practical changes including a green area within the school grounds, paying attention to the nutritional value of school meals, attracting pupils' interest in the classroom by introducing a variety of appropriate educational aids, providing stimulating and practical art classes in the school program, and establishing sports teams to include teachers as well as students.

Second, there were statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness due to gender, in favor of female teachers. This result may be explained by the fact that female teachers are more able to dedicate themselves to their work in school without being tired by extra responsibilities and economic worries for the future, since in the prevailing culture in Jordanian society, the men are responsible for supporting the family financially. In their study of school happiness levels among Turkish teachers, Sezer and Can (2019) found no statistically significant difference was found in school happiness levels attributable to gender variable. Mertoglu (2018) found a generally high happiness level among Turkish teachers but no statistically significant differences attributable to any of the variables - age, gender or marital status. Buragohain and Hazarika (2015) found that the no statically significant differences in the levels of school happiness attribute to gender variable.

In addition, parents and the local community are usually more assertive in dealing with male teachers than female teachers, for considerations imposed by the culture, making male teachers more vulnerable to the pressure, criticism, and interference of parents in their teaching methods and their interaction with students; this may be considered as an important contributory factor to female teachers having higher levels of school happiness than their male counterparts.

Third, there were statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness by level of school, in favor of secondary school teachers. This result may be explained by the fact that secondary school teachers are able to harmonize and interact with their class/group of pupils, which enhances the individual's level of motivation and happiness in staying with the group; the high level of homogeneity among members of one group leads to a high level of contact between its members, which enhances the level of school happiness. The interaction between them is positive, so that their behavior is characterized by cooperation and friendliness, and a high level of interaction. Sezer and Can (2019) found that there are statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness due to type of school. The mean scores of school happiness among primary school was higher than secondary schools.

Fourth, there were statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness due to teacher tenure, in favor of teachers with less than five years' teaching experience. This result may be explained by the fact that teachers with less teaching experience tend to seek stability and job security, are more active in the school environment, and are more enthusiastic and motivated in their teaching duties, all of which factors are reflected in their sense of school happiness.

Fifth, there were statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy by gender, in favor of female teachers. The researchers attribute this result to the enrolment of female teachers, stemming from their internal desire and motivation, which makes them more effective in the teaching profession than male teachers. This enhances their self-confidence and the self-realization achieved through successfully playing the role expected of female teachers. Yazici (2016) and Karabacak (2014) found no statistically significant difference was found in teachers autonomy levels attributable to gender variable. While Üzümlü (2014) found that the level of teachers autonomy among males teachers was higher than of females teachers.

Six, there were no statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy due to the school level. The researchers attribute this result to the nature of the common professional conditions for both primary and secondary schools. In addition, the members of the study sample are from the same community, and collectively share a common lifestyle and the same profession, so the nature of social and professional interactions between teachers does not differ according to the school level. Yazici (2016) found a statistically significant difference in teachers autonomy levels attributable to school level variable, in favor of elementary school teachers. While Rudolph (2006) and Moomaw (2005) found a statistically significant difference in teachers autonomy levels attributable to school type variable, in favor of secondary school teachers.

seven, there were statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy according to teacher tenure, in favor of teachers who have less than ten years' experience. The researchers attribute this result to the fact that teachers with less experience in teaching are motivated to perform their work in school effectively and efficiently, and feel more freedom than teachers who have long years of experience. Likewise, teachers who have less than ten years of experience set special goals for themselves and strive to achieve them, and they need to participate in vocational courses in order to achieve material gains. In addition to which, participation in vocational courses is very important for teachers' bids for promotion and tenure opportunities. Wright et al. (2018) found that there are statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy according to teacher years of experiences in teaching, in favor of teachers who have 5-9 years of teaching experiences.

CONCLUSION

This study aimed to identify if there any significant differences in these levels of school happiness and teacher autonomy by gender, school level, and teacher tenure among a sample of Jordanian teachers, and whether there are significant differences in these levels by gender, school level, and years of teacher tenure. It also aimed to investigate the relationship between school happiness and teacher autonomy. Results of the study showed there was a positive and statistically significant correlation between the level of school happiness and the level of teacher autonomy. There were statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness by gender, in favor of female teachers; statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness by school level, in favor of secondary school teachers; and statistically significant differences in the level of school happiness by teacher tenure, in favor of teachers with one to five years of experience. Results also showed statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy attributed to gender, in favor of female teachers; no statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy by school level; and statistically significant differences in the level of teacher autonomy by teacher tenure, in favor of teachers with one to five and six to ten years of experience. The present study sample was limited to Jordanian teachers with in the Jerash and Mafraq Directorate of Education, whereas future research may be undertaken in other directorates and with other variables associated with school happiness and teacher autonomy, such as teacher self-efficacy.

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